

SOCIOMETRIC STATUS AND SELF-EFFICACY
IN CHILDREN

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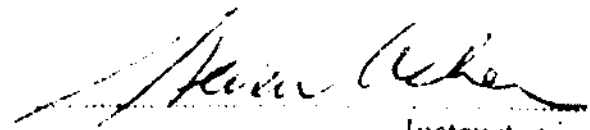
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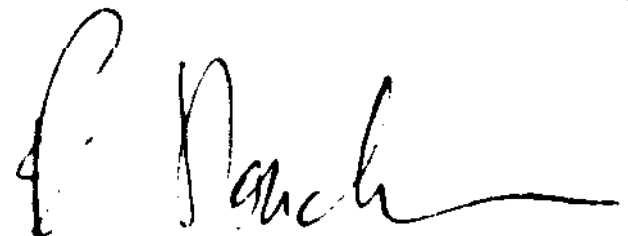
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Abstract

Wheeler and Ladd (1982) found that unpopular children score lower on the Children's Self-Efficacy for Peer Interaction Scale (CSPI) than do popular children. Since Dodge (1980) showed that unpopular children attributed hostile intent to neutral situations, it is possible that the correlation between sociometric status and self-efficacy found by Wheeler and Ladd (1982) is associated with the different ways children ambiguous interpret situations. To evaluate this possibility the CSPI, which consists of conflict and non-conflict items, was revised into three forms: a) ambiguous situations in which children are simply told that they must interact with "some children" (the Wheeler and Ladd (1982) version), b) positive situations in which they must interact with "some friends", c) negative situations in which they must interact with "some children they don't get along with". The CSPI was administered to children from a small mid-Western town. Ninety-eight of these children were identified as either popular, neglected, or rejected. The data revealed that boys score higher on the CSPI than do girls. Children reported lower levels of self-efficacy in the negative condition as opposed to the neutral and positive conditions. Furthermore, children found the items where conflict was present more difficult to perform than the non-conflict items. In contrast to Wheeler and Ladd (1982), no main effect for sociometric status was found. A two-way interaction between test condition and type of item indicated that it is possible to differentiate self-efficacy scores across test conditions, but only on non-conflict items.

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Introduction

Children's friendships provide several important resources or functions. First, they provide the child with an opportunity to learn and practice social skills. Second, interaction with other children facilitates social comparisons which are needed to develop a sense of identity. Third, children's relationships serve as a balance to rectify unwanted potential harm from parental interaction. An example is a young boy who, overindulged by a parent, realizes that he cannot "have everything" from interacting with his peers (Rubin, 1980).

There is evidence that not having friends or being poorly accepted by one's peers leads to negative consequences. Early difficulties in peer relations are related to low achievement in school, learning difficulties, and dropping out of school (Amidon & Hoffman, 1965; Bonney, 1971; Ullmann, 1957). The consequences of childhood unpopularity appears to go beyond academic problems. Low peer acceptance predicts future behavioral difficulties such as juvenile delinquency and mental health problems (Cowen, Pederson, Babigian, Izzo, & Trost, 1973; Roff, Sells, & Golden, 1972).

Clarizio (1969) reviewed a series of relevant studies concerned with the relationship between a child's lack of acceptance and difficulties in later life. He concluded that seriously aggressive children are more likely to manifest significant disturbances than shy withdrawn children who have much better chances for outgrowing early difficulties. In the Roff et al. (1972) studies, the children who became juvenile delinquents were those who had been rejected by their peers. Using a negative nominations and positive nomination measures, Amidon and

Hoffman (1965) were able to differentiate a rejected children's group from a neglected children's group. Children who grew up to be poorly adjusted, unhappy adults were often rejected by early peer groups, whereas children who were neglected were likely to be low achievers in school. Even though neglected children suffer negative consequences from their lack of social integration, it is the rejected children who are at high risk for serious problems. It should be understood that there is not an inevitable relationship between early peer problems and later adjustment difficulties. A certain proportion of maladaptive adults were unpopular children; however not all unpopular children become maladaptive adults.

Behavioral differences have been found to exist between popular and unpopular children (see Asher & Hymel, 1981; Hartup, 1983, for reviews). Popular children tend to give and receive many positive responses. Positive responses include sharing, willingness to accede to another's wishes, displaying personal acceptance and approval, and showing attention and affection. In contrast, unpopular children tend to give and receive many negative responses. Negative behaviors are, for the most part, noncompliance, interference in what is happening at the time, attacks on other children, and derogation including ridiculing, blaming, and threatening others. There are other differences between popular and unpopular children's behaviors. First, studies of nursery school children have indicated that highly accepted children are not greatly dependent on teachers (Hartup, Glazer, and Charlesworth, 1967). These children often chat amiably with their teachers and are generally cooperative when it is time to follow instructions. However, they do

not generally rely upon the teacher's assistance when encountering difficulty in peer interactions. It is believed that this lesser dependence on teachers relates to a greater ability to be supportive of classmates and resourceful with classmates. In contrast, unpopular children frequently call for the teacher's help, either by crying or in a whiney tone of voice whenever they suffer the slightest injury or rebuff. If a child frequently needs support and assistance it is unlikely he or she has the necessary emotional resources to be rewarding to his peers.

Secondly, Renshaw and Asher (1982) found that differences existed between the strategies offered by popular children versus unpopular children for making the acquaintance of new children in hypothetical situations. The popular children were more independent than the unpopular children in strategies they presented. Popular children more often suggested a joint activity or talking and playing with the new child. On the other hand, unpopular children were more likely to offer vague and inappropriate ideas or suggest that the teacher should help the new child become acquainted.

Another dissimilarity between popular and unpopular children are the tactics employed to enter an existing peer group. Corsaro (1979) believes there are three steps to properly and successfully enter a group: (1) enter the general area of interaction, (2) encircle the outer limits of interaction, and (3) enter the area directly and produce similar behaviors. The third step resembles the imitating step described by Phillips, Shenker, and Revitz (1951). Phillips et al. (1951) propose that a child should first attempt to enter a group by

imitating the actions and the words of the group. Later, after children have established themselves, they should attempt to initiate, direct, or otherwise influence group activities. Popular children have been found to do this (Putallaz & Gottman, 1981). Unfortunately, it appears that unpopular children use strategies that accomplish the opposite of the above. These children disrupt the flow of the group's activity. They make self-statements, state their feelings, ask questions not relevant to the group's activity, and disagree with the group's members. The premature implementation of these controlling strategies leads to the child being rejected by the group (Putallaz & Gottman, 1981).

Lastly, there is a difference in the manner that popular and unpopular children manage conflict. Popular children do not acquiesce to the other child but they also do not respond aggressively (Renshaw & Asher, 1982). Four general kinds of strategies were found to be utilized by popular children in conflict situations: (a) direct but non-aggressive forms of action, (b) appealing to a variety of social norms or conventions, (c) compromise, and (d) appealing to teachers and parents. Unpopular children also do not acquiesce to others, but they are more likely to suggest aggressive strategies.

Until recently, the literature concerning children's interactions has focused on unpopular children as a general group. However, a finer distinction can be made between two types of unpopularity (Coe, Dodge, & Brakke, 1982; Coie, Dodge, & Coppotelli, 1982; Dodge, in press). One is being rejected (receiving several negative nominations and no, or very few, positive nominations) and the other is being neglected (receiving neither positive or negative nominations). Research by Coie

and Dodge and their colleagues indicates striking behavioral differences between the two groups.

Another feature of most previous studies is that they have been conducted with existing peer groups. A limitation of this method is that it is plausible that observed behavior in these studies is a response to an acquired status as much as a determinant of status. Dodge (1980) found that labels can maintain a status even when behavioral patterns that contributed to the acquisition of the status disappear. Taking this into consideration, Dodge (in press) put eight previously unacquainted children together in a play situation and tried to determine behavior patterns that led to an emerging social status. To-be-popular children engaged in more social conversation, extraneous verbalizations, and cooperative play than neglected and rejected children. They spent less time in solitary, inappropriate, or aggressive play and were reprimanded by the group leader less frequently. The children who became rejected or neglected spent a large part of their time in solitary play and little time in cooperative play and social conversations as compared to other children. In fact, rejected and neglected children were almost twice as likely to attempt aggressive play and three times as likely to engage in inappropriate play behaviors. There were also differences between the neglected and rejected groups. The rejected child engaged in twice as many hostile verbalizations, four times as many physical acts of aggression, and four times as many exclusions of peers from play than the neglected child. Rejected children were viewed as highly aggressive; neglected children were rated as the most shy.

Most research to date has focused on children's overt behavioral style. There is a need for research on the social-cognitive and motivational processes that underlie behavior. One potentially important factor is children's perceptions of why they fail in social situations. If they attribute their failure to lack of ability, they are less likely to persist when met with temporary setbacks. Goetz and Dweck (1980) found that this type of "learned helplessness" exists in social situations. Helpless children, because of past experiences, believe that social success is unattainable, regardless of their actual ability. These children attribute social rejection to personal incompetence. Goetz and Dweck (1980) found that self-perceptions of social competence were related to interpersonal behavior. This research underscores the importance of cognitive mediators in attempting to understand the determinants of overt social behavior.

A related cognitive mediator to consider is the social self-concept. Social self-concept is hierarchically organized from general perceptions about one's social relationships to evaluations of social behaviors in specific situations (Shavelson, Hubner, & Stanton, 1976). Conceptualizing social competence as skillfull social behavior, then the concept of perceived social competence closely conforms to Bandura's (1977) construct of self-efficacy. Self-efficacy is defined as the belief that one can successfully perform behaviors required to produce desired outcomes. Recent research by Wheeler and Ladd (1982) indicates a positive but modest correlation (ranging from .12 - .36, depending on the sample) between sociometric status and self-efficacy. Wheeler and Ladd (1982) also found that children's perceptions of self-efficacy vary

with the situational context. Children felt greater self-efficacy for non-conflict than for conflict situations. In addition, relatively high negative correlations between social self-efficacy and anxiety supported the contention that there is an affective component associated with children's cognitions about their skillfulness in social situations.

The purpose of the present study was to learn why low status children report less self-efficacy. Perhaps these low-status children construe situations differently. Dodge's (1980) research suggests how this process might work. He found that in an ambiguous-intent condition, aggressive children reacted as there had been hostile intent. On the other hand, non-aggressive children reacted to the same condition as if there had been benign intent. It could be hypothesized that rejected children would interpret ambiguous situations as posing somewhat greater threat and that the children would feel less confidence about their ability to handle the situation. If this hypothesis is correct, it should be possible to reduce differences in reported self-efficacy either by presenting the situations as explicitly negative or challenging, or by making the situations explicitly positive and non-threatening. To assess this possibility, popular, rejected, and neglected children were given a self-efficacy questionnaire that took one of these forms: a) ambiguous situations in which children are simply told that they must interact with "some children" (the Wheeler and Ladd (1982) version), b) positive situations in which they must interact with "some friends", or c) negative situations in which they must interact with "some children they don't get along with".

The present study also extends Wheeler and Ladd's (1982) work by distinguishing between neglected and rejected children. It is hypothesized that popular children will answer the positive condition and the ambiguous condition in the same manner because they interpret the ambiguous condition as friendly (Dodge, 1980). In the same vein, rejected children's response patterns to the negative condition and ambiguous condition will be alike. No firm predictions are being made for neglected children. However, based on the research by Coie, Dodge, and colleagues, neglected children's pattern of response might be more similar to popular than to rejected children.

Method

Sociometric tests were administered to determine the children's sociometric status levels. Based on their status levels, a group of children became known as the target group. A self-efficacy questionnaire was then administered to all the children with the target children receiving particular versions of the questionnaire.

Subjects

The initial sample included 232 children from three schools in a small midwestern town. A majority (70 - 85%) of the children were from a military base located in town. Seven fourth-grade classes ($n = 148$) and four fifth-grade classes ($n = 84$) participated in the study. Two hundred twenty-seven children were actually tested because parental permission was not given for 5 children.

Instuments

Two different types of tests were administered to all the children in the sample. First, children were given positive and negative nomination sociometric tests. Second, three different versions of the Wheeler and Ladd (1982) Children's Self-efficacy for Peer Interaction Scale (CSPI) were administered. The CSPI, which originally places the child in ambiguous situations, was reworded into three different versions: positive, ambiguous, and negative. The CSPI consisted of two types of items, conflict and non-conflict. The conflict items required the children to interact in situations where they were in obvious disagreement with their peers. The non-conflict items required the children to initiate socially positive interactions with their peers.

Procedure

The positive and negative nomination tests were group administered to each class by a female college student. The instructions were as follows:

"Hello. My name is Yasmin and I am interested in learning how children get along together at school. I am going to pass out a list with all of your classmates' names on it. From this list you can show me who you like in your classroom. I do not want you to tell me out loud. You will mark your choices on the lists of names that I will give you. You can be honest because I will not show your answers to anyone. In fact, I would like you not to tell anyone else your answers because they are personal. Remember, I will be the only one who sees them. Now I'm going to pass out the lists but I don't want you to start yet. Please wait. Don't start yet."

Positive Nomination Sociometric. The examiner passed out class rosters to the children and said, "The first thing I want you to do when you get the list is to put your name at the top of the page. Then I want you to look down the list at all the names until you find your own name. When you find your name I want you to cross it out. Can everybody find their own name?"

The examiner paused while children found their names and helped any children who could not find their names. The examiner then continued, "Now look at all the names on the list and make sure that you know who everybody is." The examiner, with the help of the teacher, helped any children requesting assistance in identifying names.

"Now I am going to tell you how to mark your answers. On this list I want you to circle the names of three children you like most in this class. Only three names. Remember -- three children you like most in this class. No talking. When you are done, please make sure your name is on the top and that you only circled three names. Then raise your hand and I will collect your sheet. If anyone is having trouble, please raise your hand and I will try to help you." The examiner waited while children completed sociometric, collecting sheets as children finished.

Negative Nomination Sociometric. "Now I am going to pass out another class list. Just like you did before, please put your name at the top of the page. Then find your name on the list and cross it out." The examiner passed out the class lists. "Everybody have their name on the top? Everybody have their own name crossed out? Now on this list I want you to circle the names of three kids that you like least in this class. It doesn't mean you necessarily dislike the kids, it just means that you like these kids less than the other kids. Circle only three names and remember -- circle the names of three children you like least in this class. When you are done, raise your hand and I will collect your list." The examiner waited as children completed the sociometric, collecting completed ones.

Sociometric Scoring and Classification. The sociometric tests were scored so that for each nomination earned by a child that child received a tally. Since the nominations received by a child were used, it was not essential for the child to be present at the sociometric testing. A child was classified to be popular if he or she received four or more positive nominations (one which must have been from his or her own sex)

and one or zero negative nominations; a child was classified to be rejected if he or she received one or zero positive nominations and four or more negative nominations (one which must have been from his or her own sex); a child was classified to be neglected if he or she received one or zero positive nominations and one or zero negative nominations.

Sample Selection and CSPI Assignment. From each classroom three popular, three rejected, and three neglected children were chosen as the target children. The three target children from each sociometric status group were ranked as the most extreme of that sociometric status group, the second most extreme of that status group, and the third most extreme of that status group. Children were then randomly assigned within status level, within class, to one of the three versions of the CSPI. This was done in a way that ensured that the most, next most, and third most rejected, neglected, and popular children were equally represented throughout each version of the questionnaire. The remaining children in each classroom were randomly assigned the various versions of the CSPI.

The CSPI (see Appendix A) was group administered by a male college student two to three weeks after the sociometric testing. If a child was absent, he or she was tested during the following week. The time lag between the two dates of testing and the use of two experimenters were employed so that the children would not associate the two parts of the study. This seems to have been successful in that none of the children inquired about the relationship between the two phases of testing.

CSPI Instructions. The examiner gave the following instructions: "Hi. My name is Paul. I'm interested in learning what kids think about some

things that happen with other kids their age. I'd like to have you help me by filling out a questionnaire. Can anyone tell me what a questionnaire is? [The examiner waited for children to respond to the question.] It's a list of questions that asks you some things about yourself. Now, I will pass out the questions. Now, get a pencil. [The examiner called of the children's names to give them their designated tests.]

Today the questions will ask you how easy or hard it is for you to do some things with other kids your age. After each question will be the answers, like this: [The examiner pointed to the board]

HARD! hard easy EASY!

If something is hard to do, you will circle the HARD! in big letters. That means it is very hard. If something is only a little bit hard, you will circle the hard in little letters. If something is only a little bit easy to do, you will circle the easy in little letters. If something is very easy, you will circle the EASY! in big letters. Okay? Very hard (big letters), a little bit hard (little letters), a little easy (little letters), and very easy (big letters). [The investigator pointed to the appropriate response choice as the responses were defined.]

Let's try some examples. Example one:

There is a new child in your neighborhood. Meeting this child is _____ for you.

The first sentence tells you what is happening. The second sentence asks you how hard or easy it would be for you to get other kids to do something. Next you decide on your answer and circle it. Are there any

questions? Let's try another example.

It is your turn to do the dinner dishes. Washing the dinner dishes is _____ for you.

Read each question carefully and pretend that what it says is really happening to you. Then, I want you to circle how easy or how hard it would be for you to do the things in each question. Some kids your age think these things are easy to do. Other kids your age think these things are hard to do. I want you to circle the answer that is really true for you. This isn't a test so there are no right or wrong answers -- only what is true for you. There should be no talking so everyone can think carefully. It is very important that everyone is quiet so that this can be private. You can give me your honest answers because I will be the only one to see them. I won't show them to anyone.

Okay, let's get started. Make sure to do each question and circle your answers. If have you trouble with any of the words or need help with any question, raise your hand and I'll come to help you. Do this by yourself. There should be no talking. When you're done, turn your paper over, sit quietly, and get something else to do.

Loss of Subjects. Between the time of the sociometric testing and the administration of the CPSI nine children moved away. Of these nine children, four of them were target children. It was possible to replace two of these children by another child of the same status level and in the same condition. The third child was replaced by a child of the same status level, but in a different test condition. The fourth child was not able to be adequately replaced by a child in his classroom. Therefore, the number of target children was reduced to 98.

CSPI Scoring. There are four possible responses to each item: HARD! (indicating extremely difficult), hard (moderately difficult), easy (moderately managable), and EASY! (extremely managable). The "HARD" response was given a value of 1, "hard" a value of 2, "easy" a value of 3, and "EASY" a value of 4.

The value of items not responded to was estimated by averaging the child's score for the rest of the items of that item type. For example, if the unanswered item was a conflict situation, then only the conflict items were summed. This sum was divided by the number of conflict items answered by the child. This new value replaced the missing value. A child received three different scores: a total score (all items summed), a non-conflict score (items 1, 4, 6, 10, 11, 13, 15, 17, 19, and 21 summed), and a conflict score (items 2, 3, 5, 7, 8, 9, 12, 14, 16, 18, 20, and 22 summed).

Results

Analysis of Variance of Self-efficacy Scores

A 3 x 3 x 2 x 2 (Status x Condition x Sex x Type of Item) analysis of variance was performed on the self-efficacy scores. Relevant means are shown in Table 1. Three significant main effects were found. A significant effect of sex was obtained, $F(1,80) = 7.92, p < .01$. Boys reported higher levels of self-efficacy than girls across all test conditions. The second main effect was for type of item, $F(1,80) = 6.07, p < .02$. Non-conflict scores were generally higher than conflict scores. Finally, the third main effect was for test condition, $F(2,80) = 5.95, p < .01$. Self-efficacy scores for the positive and neutral conditions tended to be higher than the self-efficacy scores for the negative condition. However, it should be noted that although it is possible to differentiate self-efficacy scores across the various test conditions, this is only possible for the non-conflict items. This is represented by the two-way interaction between test condition and type of item, $F(2,80) = 14.02, p < .0001$. This interaction is graphically represented in Figure 1. No higher order interactions reached significance at $p < .05$. Contrary to the hypothesis, no main effects were found for sociometric status.

To further investigate the two-way interaction between test condition and item-type, a Duncan's multiple range test was conducted on the differences between the means of the conflict and non-conflict item scores across the various conditions. Using an alpha level of .05, results indicated that the differences of the means for the non-conflict item scores between the negative and the neutral conditions and between

the negative and the positive conditions were found to be significant. The mean difference between the neutral and the positive conditions for the non-conflict scores was not significant. Thus the relationship with whom one is interacting with influenced perceived task difficulty. None of the obtained differences between the mean conflict scores across the various test conditions were found to be significant. It appears that children view interacting in conflict situations as quite difficult regardless of their relationships with other children.

Pearson's Correlation between Status and Self-Efficacy Scores

A Pearson's correlation coefficient was computed on the complete set of data to investigate further the relationship between a child's sociometric status and his or her self-efficacy scores (total items, conflict items, and non-conflict items). These correlations were done twice, once using same-sex nominations, and then using both-sex nominations. No statistically significant correlations were found at the $p < .05$ level except for the correlation between same-sex negative nominations and non-conflict scores for females ($r = .171$, $p = .04$).

Discussion

The results of the present study revealed no significant differences between the various status levels in self-efficacy scores. Thus the findings of Wheeler and Ladd (1982) were not replicated since sociometric status was found to have no relationship to responses on the self-efficacy test. However, it should be noted that the relationship found by Wheeler and Ladd (1982) between total self-efficacy scores and sociometric status was relatively low, with correlations varying from .12 to .36. The mean correlation was .25. It is feasible that since the relationship may be tenuous, it could be swayed by a slight variation in characteristics of the sample. The present sample contained such a confounding characteristic which may have affected the results. As stated above, a military base was located in the town where the sample was drawn from. A large majority of the children tested were children from this military base. These children lead very mobile lives. This mostly could mean that the sociometric scores here were not as reliable as those from other research and the classification of children as popular, rejected, or neglected is not as reliable.

Even though rejected children did not report lower levels of self-efficacy, it is possible that they experience lower levels of self-efficacy in real life situations. It has been shown in this study and by Wheeler and Ladd (1982) that when placed in conflict situations, all children experience less self-efficacy. By the definition of their status, rejected children should experience even less self-efficacy. Why was this relationship not found? When discussing self-efficacy, it has been assumed that children are very insightful and are aware of

their peers' reactions to their own social behaviors. The awareness of behaving inappropriately should lead to lower levels of self-efficacy. Thus, rejected children should realize that their peers are reacting negatively to them and that this negative reaction is due to the rejected children's inappropriate social behavior. However this assumption may be wrong. It is possible that elementary school children are not as insightful as they have been credited to be. Rejected children may recognize that they do not get along with others as well as their peers do. Yet, they may not understand the role their behavior plays in eliciting rejection. Rejected children may not report lower levels of self-efficacy because they view themselves as socially competent.

It is unfortunate, in the present study, that the rating-scale measures for sociometric status used by Wheeler and Ladd (1982) was not used instead of or in addition to the nomination measures. Although the nomination scores tend to be stable over time, the problem with using this measure is that the gain or loss of a single nomination per child will dramatically effect the distribution of scores since a child receives only a few nominations. Furthermore, a child will nominate some children in order to fulfill the quota of children to be nominated as designated by the instructions, even though he or she may not feel strongly toward the the nominees. By contrast, the rating scale measure has two particular virtues. First, since children rate all their classmates it can be examined to see if children differ in their affective orientations toward classmates. These orientations might relate to feelings of efficacy or to sociometric statuses. Secondly, it

has been found that reliability is higher for rating-scale measures than nomination measures. This is because a child's score on a rating-scale measure is the average of all ratings given by all classmates. A change in or lack of ratings given by one or two classmates would not have a great effect on that child's score. This average score is much more reliable than the nomination measure scores.

As in Wheeler and Ladd (1982), it appears that non-conflict item tasks are perceived as easier to perform than conflict item tasks. What makes conflict tasks more difficult to accomplish than non-conflict tasks? Conflict situations imply feelings of anxiety. These feelings of anxiety could be based on subjective cognitions including lack of persuasive skills, social problem solving skills, and assertiveness, or the fear of social repercussions for contradicting a peer. Since Wheeler and Ladd (1982) found a relatively high correlation between social self-efficacy and anxiety, it is reasonable to believe that conflict tasks are more difficult because of the anxiety factor involved.

The results indicated that it is preferable to interact with a friend than an enemy. This makes sense when one realizes that not only does the expectation of rewarding positive behaviors from the non-friend not exist, but that the anticipation of negative behaviors is present. This anticipation of negative events is akin to the anxiety present in conflict situations. Results showed that an interaction exists between item-type and test condition. On the conflict items there was no effect for test condition, but test condition had a strong effect on the non-conflict items. Apparently, having to interact with

someone one does not get along with creates anxiety even non-conflict situations.

Results indicated that girls have lower levels of self-efficacy than boys do. Goetz and Dweck (1980) reported a similar phenomenon as above since they found that girls attributed social failure to personal incompetence more than did the boys. The literature on learned helplessness in children has found that girls are more likely to attribute academic failure to personal incompetence while boys generally attribute academic failure to external or non-ability factors. As in academic failure, it is possible that boys are more likely to attribute social failure to external sources while girls tend not to. Therefore, the lower levels of self-efficacy in girls may occur because they invoke internal attributions for the interpersonal failures that occur in their lives.

Future research on self-efficacy might consider whether the child has to interact with an individual peer versus a group of peers. Both the conflict and non-conflict items on the CSPI contain group and individual contexts. For some children, interactions with a group may be more stressful than interactions with an individual, and, accordingly, more difficult to accomplish. Consequently, summing group and individually oriented items under one category implies an equivalence in levels of task difficulty which probably does not exist.

A preliminary theory can be offered about the relationship between self-efficacy score and social behaviors in rejected children. The present study demonstrates that children feel less efficacy in conflict situations. It seems plausible that rejected children experience more

interpersonal conflict in their everyday lives. This could serve to further lower their feelings of efficacy and in turn negatively affect their social behavior. These children should be taught the appropriate strategies and goals so that they may interact positively with their peers. These positive interactions should, in turn, lead to improved self-efficacy and improved relationships with peers. With improved peer acceptance, these children will be at less risk for later social and mental difficulties.

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Table 1
Mean Scores of Responses to CSPI

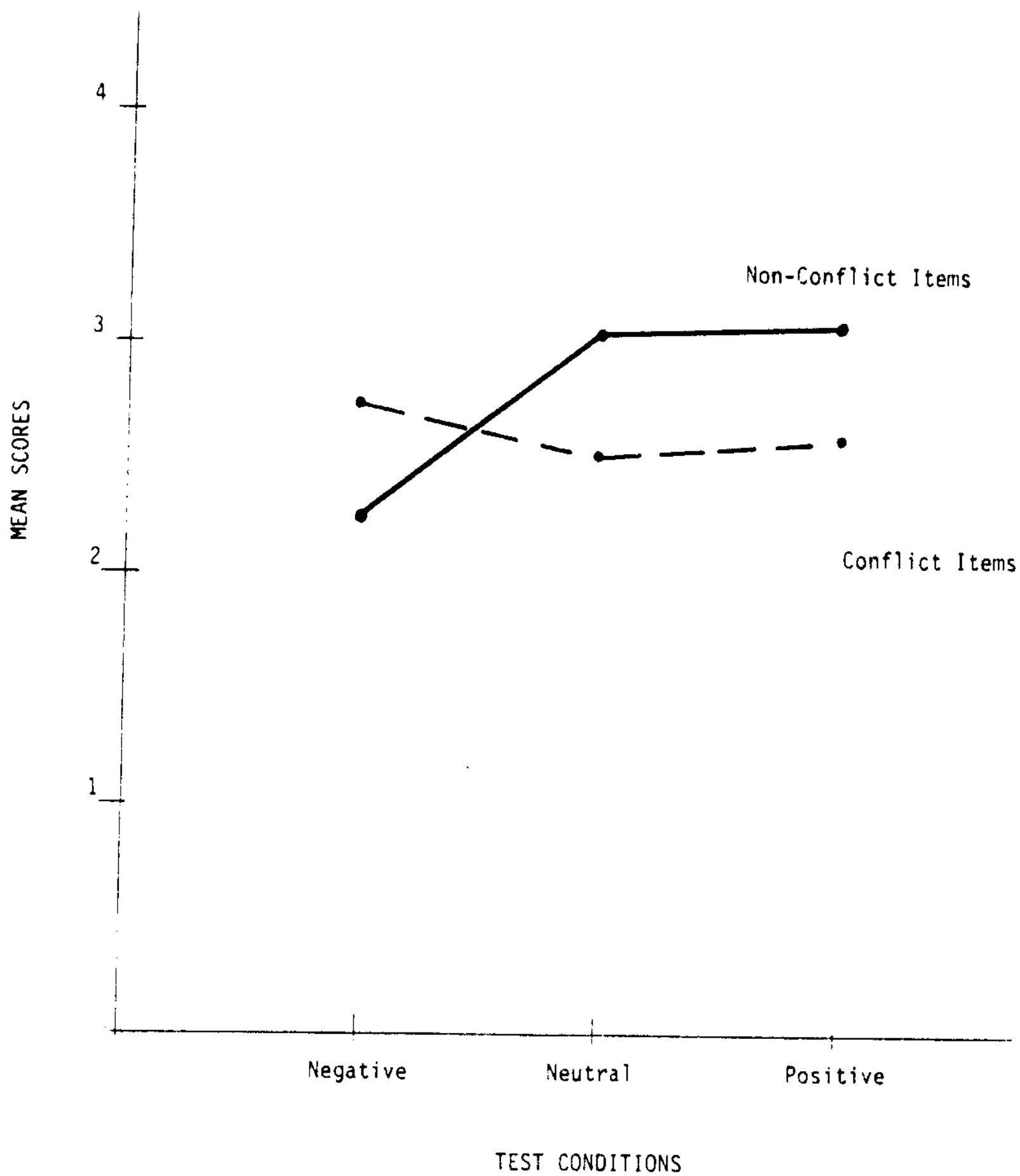
	Test Condition					
	Positive		Neutral		Negative	
	Confl	Noncon	Confl	Noncon	Confl	Noncon
Male						
Neglected	2.40	3.00	3.27	3.33	2.63	2.32
Rejected	2.95	3.12	2.87	3.37	2.85	2.39
Popular	2.76	3.12	2.52	2.93	2.95	2.37
Female						
Neglected	2.57	3.08	2.28	2.98	2.76	2.17
Rejected	2.54	3.48	2.13	2.78	2.22	2.40
Popular	2.53	2.64	2.38	2.75	2.60	2.20

Note: Confl = Conflict items; Noncon = Non-conflict items

Figure caption.

Figure 1. Mean Self-Efficacy Scores for Conflict and Non-Conflict Items Across the Three Test Conditions.

Figure 1



APPENDIX A
THREE VERSIONS OF THE CSPI

1. Some children want to play a game. Asking them if you can play is _____ for you.

HARD! hard easy EASY!

2. Some children are arguing about how to play a game. Telling them the rules is _____ for you.

HARD! hard easy EASY!

3. Some children are teasing your friend. Telling them to stop is _____ for you.

HARD! hard easy EASY!

4. You want to start a game. Asking other children to play the game is _____ for you.

HARD! hard easy EASY!

5. A child tries to take your turn during a game. Telling this child it's your turn is _____ for you.

HARD! hard easy EASY!

6. Some children are going to lunch. Asking if you can sit with them is _____ for you.

HARD! hard easy EASY!

7. A child cuts in front of you in line. Telling this child not to cut is _____ for you.

HARD! hard easy EASY!

8. A child wants to do something that will get you into trouble. Asking this child to do something else is _____ for you.

HARD! hard easy EASY!

9. Some children are making fun of someone in your classroom. Telling them to stop is _____ for you.

HARD! hard easy EASY!

10. Some children need more people to be on their teams. Asking if you can be on a team is _____ for you.

HARD! hard easy EASY!

11. You have to carry some things home after school. Asking another child to help you is _____ for you.

HARD! hard easy EASY!

12. A child always wants to be first when you play a game. Telling this child you are going first is _____ for you.

HARD! hard easy EASY!

13. Your class is going on a trip and everyone needs a partner. Asking someone to be your partner is _____ for you.

HARD! hard easy EASY!

14. A child does not like your friend. Asking this child to be nice to your friend is _____ for you.

HARD! hard easy EASY!

15. Some children are deciding what game to play. Telling them about a game you like is _____ for you.

HARD! hard easy EASY!

16. You are having fun playing a game but the other children want to stop. Asking them to keep playing is _____ for you.

HARD! hard easy EASY!

17. You are working on a project. Asking another child to help is _____ for you.

HARD! hard easy EASY!

18. Some children are using your play area. Asking them to move is _____ for you.

HARD! hard easy EASY!

19. Some children are deciding what to do after school. Telling them what you want to do is _____ for you.

HARD!

hard

easy

EASY!

20. A group of children wants to play a game that you don't like. Asking them to play a game you like is _____ for you.

HARD!

hard

easy

EASY!

21. Some children are planning a party. Asking them to invite your friend is _____ for you.

HARD!

hard

easy

EASY!

22. A child is yelling at you. Telling this child to stop is _____ for you.

HARD!

hard

easy

EASY!

1. Some friends want to play a game. Asking them if you can play is _____ for you.

HARD!hardeasyEASY!

2. Some friends are arguing about how to play a game. Telling them the rules is _____ for you.

HARD!hardeasyEASY!

3. Some friends are teasing your friend. Telling them to stop is _____ for you.

HARD!hardeasyEASY!

4. You want to start a game. Asking other friends to play the game is _____ for you.

HARD!hardeasyEASY!

5. A friend tries to take your turn during a game. Telling the friend it's your turn is _____ for you.

HARD!hardeasyEASY!

6. Some friends are going to lunch. Asking if you can sit with them is _____ for you.

HARD!hardeasyEASY!

7. A friend cuts in front of you in line. Telling your friend not to cut is _____ for you.

HARD!hardeasyEASY!

8. A friend wants to do something that will get you into trouble. Asking your friend to do something else is _____ for you.

HARD!hardeasyEASY!

9. Some friends are making fun of someone in your classroom. Telling them to stop is _____ for you.

HARD!hardeasyEASY!

10. Some friends need more people to be on their team. Asking if you can be on a team is _____ for you.

HARD! hard easy EASY!

11. You have to carry some things home after school. Asking a friend to help you is _____ for you.

HARD! hard easy EASY!

12. A friend always wants to be first when you play a game. Telling your friend you are going first is _____ for you.

HARD! hard easy EASY!

13. Your class is going on a trip and everyone needs a partner. Asking a friend to be your partner is _____ for you.

HARD! hard easy EASY!

14. A friend does not like one of your other friends. Asking this friend to be nice to your other friend is _____ for you.

HARD! hard easy EASY!

15. Some friends are deciding what game to play. Telling them about a game you like is _____ for you.

HARD! hard easy EASY!

16. You are having fun playing a game but your friends want to stop. Asking them to keep playing is _____ for you.

HARD! hard easy EASY!

17. You are working on a project. Asking a friend to help is _____ for you.

HARD! hard easy EASY!

18. Some friends are using your play area. Asking them to move is _____ for you.

HARD! hard easy EASY!

19. Some friends are deciding what to do after school. Telling them what you want to do is _____ for you.

HARD!

hard

easy

EASY!

20. A group of friends wants to play a game that you don't like. Asking them to play a game you like is _____ for you.

HARD!

hard

easy

EASY!

21. Some friends are planning a party. Asking them to invite your friend is _____ for you.

HARD!

hard

easy

EASY!

22. A friend is yelling at you. Telling your friend to stop is _____ for you.

HARD!

hard

easy

EASY!

1. Some children who you don't get along with want to play a game. Asking them if you can play is _____ for you.

HARD!hardeasyEASY!

2. Some children who you don't get along with are arguing about how to play a game. Telling them the rules is _____ for you.

HARD!hardeasyEASY!

3. Some children who you don't get along with are teasing your friend. Telling them to stop is _____ for you.

HARD!hardeasyEASY!

4. You want to start a game. Asking other children who you don't get along with to play the game is _____ for you.

HARD!hardeasyEASY!

5. A child who you don't get along with tries to take your turn during a game. Telling this child it's your turn is _____ for you.

HARD!hardeasyEASY!

6. Some children who you don't get along with are going to lunch. Asking if you can sit with them is _____ for you.

HARD!hardeasyEASY!

7. A child who you don't get along with cuts in front of you in line. Telling this child not to cut is _____ for you.

HARD!hardeasyEASY!

8. A child who you don't get along with wants to do something that will get you into trouble. Asking this child to do something else is _____ for you.

HARD!hardeasyEASY!

9. Some children who you don't get along with are making fun of someone in your classroom. Telling them to stop is _____ for you.

HARD!hardeasyEASY!

10. Some children who you don't get along with need more people to be on their teams. Asking if you can be on their team is _____ for you.

HARD!

hard

easy

EASY!

11. You have to carry some things home after school. Asking another child who you don't get along with to help you is _____ for you.

HARD!

hard

easy

EASY!

12. A child who you don't get along with always wants to be first when you play a game. Telling this child you are going first is _____ for you.

HARD!

hard

easy

EASY!

13. Your class is going on a trip and everyone needs a partner. Asking a child who you don't get along with to be your partner is _____ for you.

HARD!

hard

easy

EASY!

14. A child who you don't get along with does not like your friend. Asking this child to be nice to your friend is _____ for you.

HARD!

hard

easy

EASY!

15. Some children that you don't get along with are deciding what game to play. Telling them about a game you like is _____ for you.

HARD!

hard

easy

EASY!

16. You are having fun playing a game but the other children who you don't get along with want to stop. Asking them to keep playing is _____ for you.

HARD!

hard

easy

EASY!

17. You are working on a project. Asking another child who you don't get along with to help is _____ for you.

HARD!

hard

easy

EASY!

18. Some children who you don't get along with are using your play area. Asking them to move is _____ for you.

HARD!

hard

easy

EASY!

19. Some children who you don't get along with are deciding what to do after school. Telling them what you want to do is _____ for you.

HARD!

hard

easy

EASY!

20. A group of children that you don't get along with wants to play a game that you don't like. Asking them to play a game you like is _____ for you.

HARD!

hard

easy

EASY!

21. Some children that you don't get along with are planning a party. Asking them to invite your friend is _____ for you.

HARD!

hard

easy

EASY!

22. A child that you don't get along with is yelling at you. Telling this child to stop is _____ for you.

HARD!

hard

easy

EASY!